

# Random Networks Nutshell

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Principles of Complex Systems, Vols. 1, 2, & 3D  
CSYS/MATH 6701, 6713, & a pretend number, 2024–2025

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Santa Fe Institute | University of Vermont



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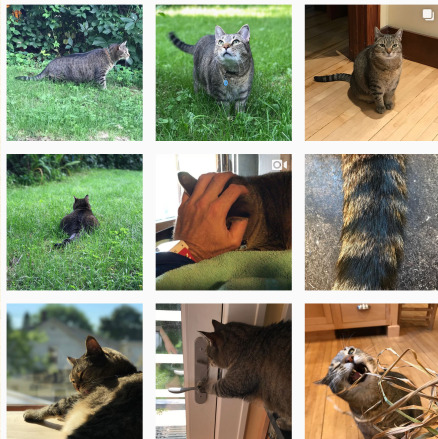
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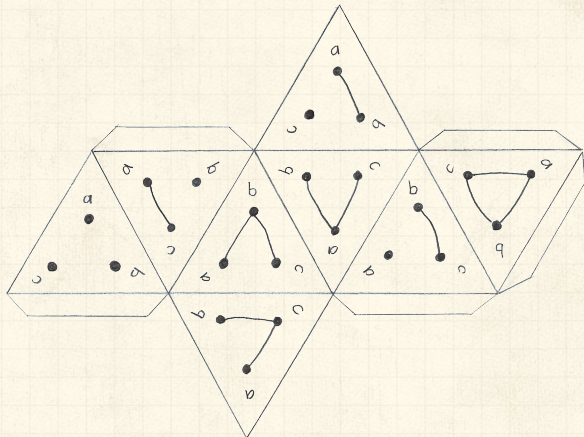
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## Random network generator for $N = 3$ :



 Get your own exciting generator [here](#) .

 As  $N \nearrow$ , polyhedral die rapidly becomes a ball...

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# Random networks

Pure, abstract random networks:

 Consider set of all networks with  $N$  labelled nodes and  $m$  edges.

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 Consider set of all networks with  $N$  labelled nodes and  $m$  edges.

 Standard random network = one **randomly chosen** network from this set.

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 To be clear: each network is **equally** probable.




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 Sometimes equiprobability is a good assumption, but it is always an assumption.




## Pure, abstract random networks:

-  Consider set of all networks with  $N$  labelled nodes and  $m$  edges.
-  Standard random network = one **randomly chosen** network from this set.
-  To be clear: each network is **equally** probable.
-  Sometimes equiprobability is a good assumption, but it is always an assumption.
-  Known as Erdős-Rényi random networks or **ER graphs**.



## Random networks—basic features:

 Number of possible edges:

$$0 \leq m \leq \binom{N}{2} = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$$

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 Number of possible networks with  $N$  labelled nodes:

$$2^{\binom{N}{2}} \sim e^{\frac{\ln 2}{2} N(N-1)}.$$

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 Crazy factorial explosion for  $1 \ll m \ll \binom{N}{2}$ .

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 Crazy factorial explosion for  $1 \ll m \ll \binom{N}{2}$ .

 **Real world:** links are usually costly so real networks are almost always **sparse**.

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How to build standard random networks:

 Given  $N$  and  $m$ .

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# Random networks

How to build standard random networks:



Given  $N$  and  $m$ .



Two probabilistic methods

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# Random networks

How to build standard random networks:



Given  $N$  and  $m$ .



Two probabilistic methods (we'll see a third later on)

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How to build standard random networks:



Given  $N$  and  $m$ .





Two probabilistic methods (we'll see a third later on)

1. Connect each of the  $\binom{N}{2}$  pairs with appropriate probability  $p$ .



## How to build standard random networks:

-  Given  $N$  and  $m$ .
-  Two probabilistic methods (we'll see a third later on)
  1. Connect each of the  $\binom{N}{2}$  pairs with appropriate probability  $p$ .
  2. Take  $N$  nodes and add exactly  $m$  links by selecting edges without replacement.



## How to build standard random networks:



Given  $N$  and  $m$ .



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Useful for theoretical work.

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Given  $N$  and  $m$ .



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**Algorithm:** Randomly choose a pair of nodes  $i$  and  $j$ ,  $i \neq j$ , and connect if unconnected; repeat until all  $m$  edges are allocated.



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Given  $N$  and  $m$ .



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Best for adding relatively small numbers of links (most cases).



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Best for adding relatively small numbers of links (most cases).




1 and 2 are effectively equivalent for large  $N$ .



# Random networks

A few more things:

 For method 1, # links is probabilistic:

$$\langle m \rangle = p \binom{N}{2}$$

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# Random networks

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$$\langle k \rangle = \frac{2 \langle m \rangle}{N}$$




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 Which is what it should be...




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 Which is what it should be...

 If we keep  $\langle k \rangle$  constant then  $p \propto 1/N \rightarrow 0$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .



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# Random networks: examples

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Example realizations of random networks

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# Random networks: examples

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Example realizations of random networks

  $N = 500$

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Next slides:

Example realizations of random networks

  $N = 500$

 Vary  $m$ , the number of edges from 100 to 1000.



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Next slides:

Example realizations of random networks

  $N = 500$

 Vary  $m$ , the number of edges from 100 to 1000.

 Average degree  $\langle k \rangle$  runs from 0.4 to 4.



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Example realizations of random networks

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 Vary  $m$ , the number of edges from 100 to 1000.

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 Look at full network plus the largest component.



# Random networks: examples for $N=500$

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$m = 100$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.4$



$m = 200$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.8$



$m = 230$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.92$



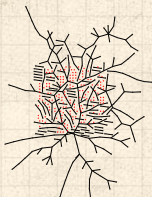
$m = 240$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.96$



$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



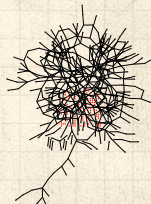
$m = 260$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.04$



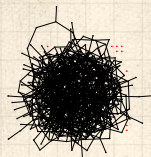
$m = 280$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.12$



$m = 300$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.2$



$m = 500$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2$



$m = 1000$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 4$



# Random networks: largest components

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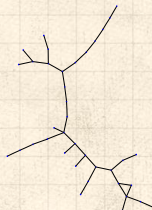
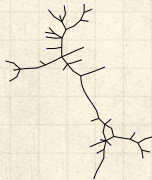
## References



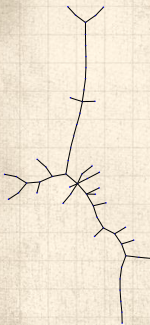
$m = 100$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.4$



$m = 230$   
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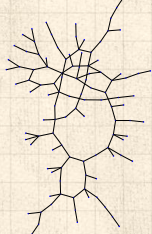
$m = 200$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.8$



$m = 300$

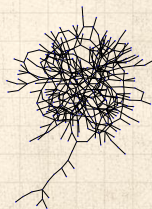


$m = 240$   
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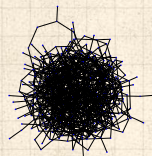


$m = 500$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2$

$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 1000$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 4$



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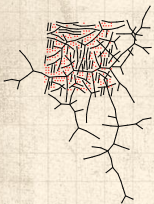
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$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 250$   
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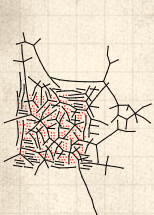
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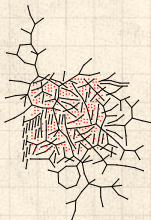
$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



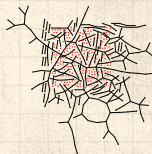
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# Random networks: largest components

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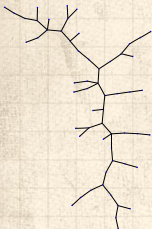
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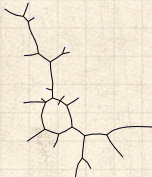
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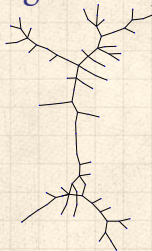
## References



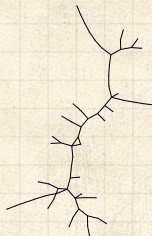
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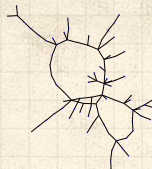
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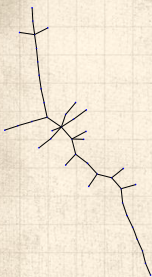
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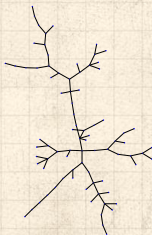
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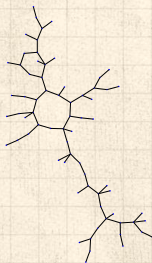
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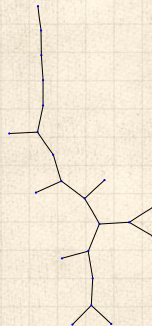
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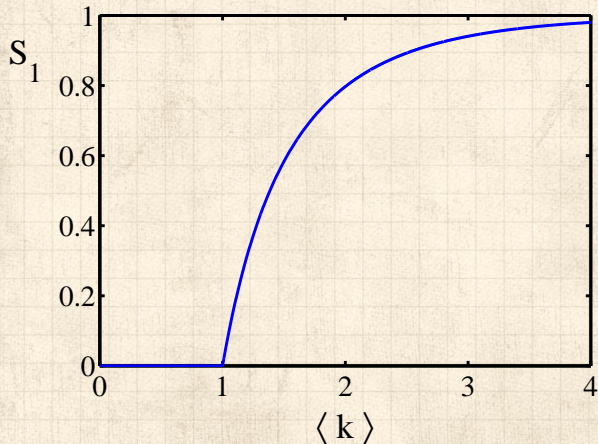
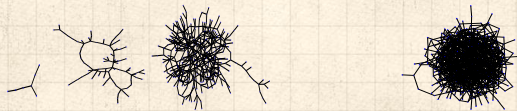
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# Giant component



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# Clustering in random networks:



For construction method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?

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# Clustering in random networks:

-  For construction method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?
-  Consider triangle/triple clustering coefficient: [6]

$$C_2 = \frac{3 \times \# \text{triangles}}{\# \text{triples}}$$

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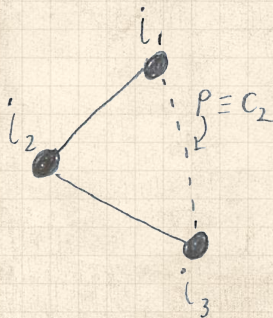


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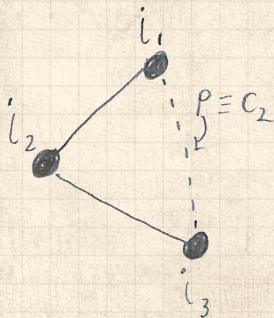
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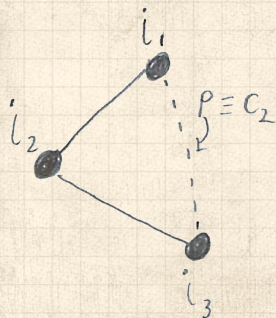
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- Recall:  $C_2$  = probability that two friends of a node are also friends.
- Or:  $C_2$  = probability that a triple is part of a triangle.
- For standard random networks, we have simply that

$$C_2 = p.$$



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So for large random networks  
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Key structural feature of random networks is that they locally look like pure branching networks

No small loops.



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 Recall  $P_k$  = probability that a randomly selected node has degree  $k$ .

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## Degree distribution:

 Recall  $P_k$  = probability that a randomly selected node has degree  $k$ .

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- Each connection occurs with probability  $p$ , each non-connection with probability  $(1 - p)$ .
- Therefore have a binomial distribution :

$$P(k; p, N) = \binom{N-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-1-k}.$$





# Limiting form of $P(k; p, N)$ :

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Limiting form of  $P(k; p, N)$ :



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So examine limit of  $P(k; p, N)$  when  $p \rightarrow 0$  and  $N \rightarrow \infty$  with  $\langle k \rangle = p(N-1) = \text{constant}$ .

$$P(k; p, N) \simeq \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} \left( 1 - \frac{\langle k \rangle}{N-1} \right)^{N-1-k} \rightarrow \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

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This is a Poisson distribution  with mean  $\langle k \rangle$ .

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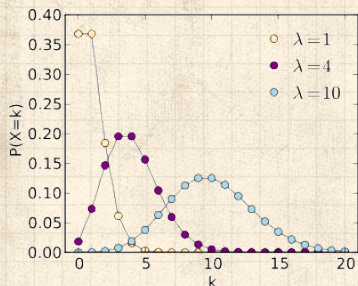
References








# Poisson basics:


$$P(k; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$$




  $\lambda > 0$

  $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

 Classic use: probability that an event occurs  $k$  times in a given time period, given an average rate of occurrence.

 e.g.:  
phone calls/minute,  
horse-kick deaths.

 'Law of small numbers'



# Poisson basics:



The **variance** of degree distributions for random networks turns out to be **very important**.

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 So standard deviation  $\sigma$  is equal to  $\sqrt{\langle k \rangle}$ .

 Note: This is a special property of Poisson distribution and can trip us up...





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# General random networks



So... standard random networks have a Poisson degree distribution

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 Generalize to arbitrary degree distribution  $P_k$ .

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- Also known as the **configuration model**. [6]
- Can generalize construction method from ER random networks.
- Assign each node a weight  $w$  from some distribution  $P_w$  and form links with probability

$$P(\text{link between } i \text{ and } j) \propto w_i w_j.$$



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  1. Randomly wiring up (and rewiring) already existing nodes with fixed degrees.
  2. Examining mechanisms that lead to networks with certain degree distributions.



# Random networks: examples

Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

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  $N = 1000$ .

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Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

  $N = 1000.$

  $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$  for  $k \geq 1.$

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 Set  $P_0 = 0$  (no isolated nodes).

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# Random networks: examples

Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

-   $N = 1000$ .
-   $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$  for  $k \geq 1$ .
-  Set  $P_0 = 0$  (no isolated nodes).
-  Vary exponent  $\gamma$  between 2.10 and 2.91.

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# Random networks: examples

Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:


-   $N = 1000$ .
-   $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$  for  $k \geq 1$ .
-  Set  $P_0 = 0$  (no isolated nodes).
-  Vary exponent  $\gamma$  between 2.10 and 2.91.
-  Again, look at full network plus the largest component.





# Random networks: examples


## Coming up:


Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:


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 Set  $P_0 = 0$  (no isolated nodes).

 Vary exponent  $\gamma$  between 2.10 and 2.91.

 Again, look at full network plus the largest component.

 Apart from degree distribution, wiring is random.





# Random networks: examples for $N=1000$

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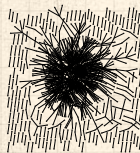
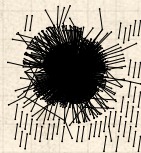
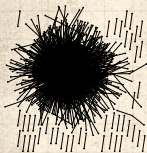
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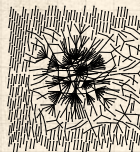
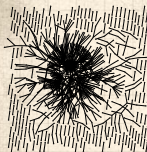
$\gamma = 2.1$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 3.448$

$\gamma = 2.19$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2.986$

$\gamma = 2.28$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2.306$ .pdf

$\gamma = 2.37$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2.504$

$\gamma = 2.46$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.856$



$\gamma = 2.55$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.712$

$\gamma = 2.64$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.6$

$\gamma = 2.73$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.862$ .pdf

$\gamma = 2.82$   
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$\gamma = 2.91$   
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# Random networks: largest components

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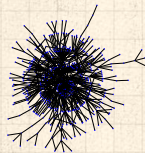
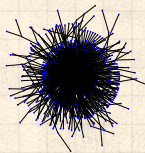
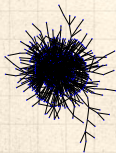
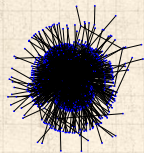
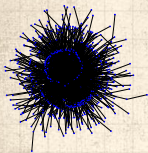
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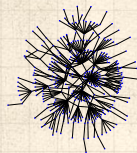
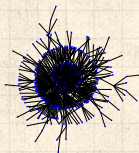
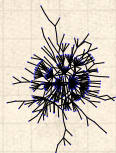
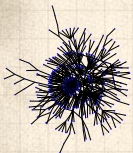
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## Generalized random networks:



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## Generalized random networks:

 Arbitrary degree distribution  $P_k$ .




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 Create (unconnected) nodes with degrees sampled from  $P_k$ .



## Generalized random networks:





 Arbitrary degree distribution  $P_k$ .

 Create (unconnected) nodes with degrees sampled from  $P_k$ .

 Wire nodes together randomly.



## Generalized random networks:


-  Arbitrary degree distribution  $P_k$ .
-  Create (unconnected) nodes with degrees sampled from  $P_k$ .
-  Wire nodes together randomly.
-  Create ensemble to test deviations from randomness.

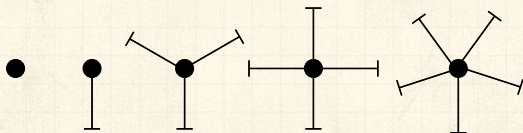




# Building random networks: Stubs

## Phase 1:

 **Idea:** start with a soup of unconnected nodes with **stubs** (half-edges):



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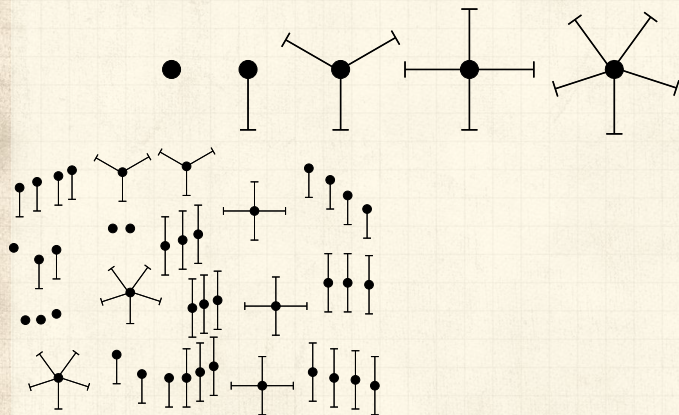
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# Building random networks: Stubs

## Phase 1:

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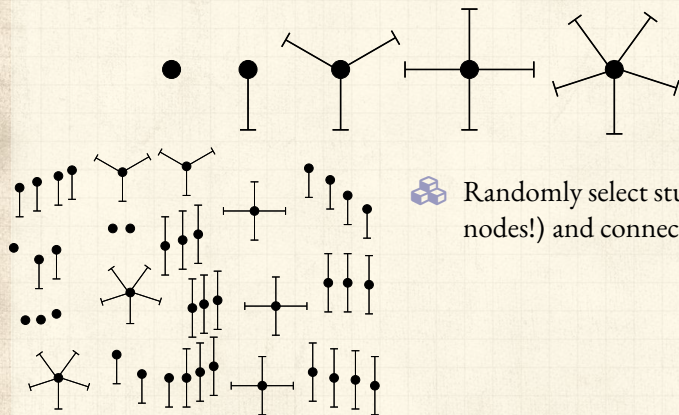
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# Building random networks: Stubs

## Phase 1:

 **Idea:** start with a soup of unconnected nodes with **stubs** (half-edges):



 Randomly select stubs (not nodes!) and connect them.

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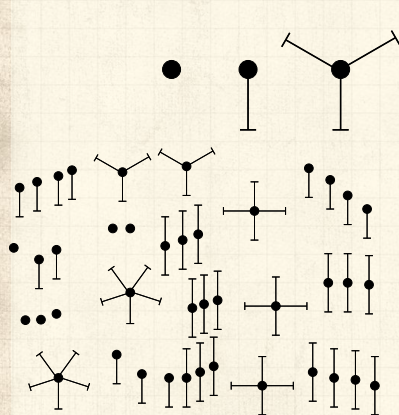
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# Building random networks: Stubs

## Phase 1:

 **Idea:** start with a soup of unconnected nodes with **stubs** (half-edges):



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 Must have an even number of stubs.

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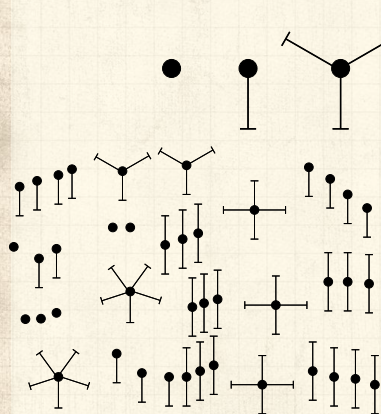
## References





# Building random networks: Stubs


## Phase 1:

 **Idea:** start with a soup of unconnected nodes with **stubs** (half-edges):



 Randomly select stubs (not nodes!) and connect them.

 Must have an even number of stubs.

 Initially allow **self-** and **repeat** connections.

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# Building random networks: First rewiring

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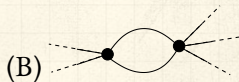
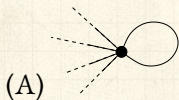
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## Phase 2:

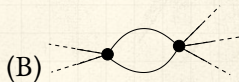
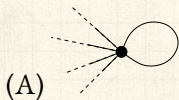
 Now find any (A) self-loops and (B) repeat edges and **randomly rewire** them.




# Building random networks: First rewiring

## Phase 2:

 Now find any (A) self-loops and (B) repeat edges and **randomly rewire** them.




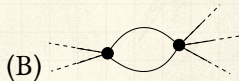
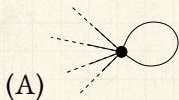
 **Being careful:** we can't change the degree of any node, so we can't simply move links around.





# Building random networks: First rewiring

## Phase 2:

-  Now find any (A) self-loops and (B) repeat edges and **randomly rewire** them.



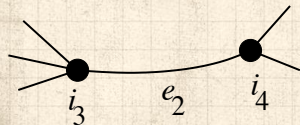
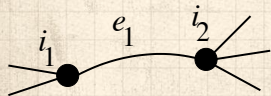
-  **Being careful:** we can't change the degree of any node, so we can't simply move links around.

-  **Simplest solution:** randomly rewire **two edges** at a time.





# General random rewiring algorithm



Randomly choose **two edges**.  
(Or choose problem edge and a  
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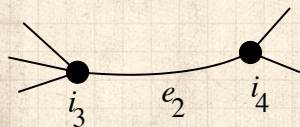
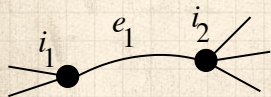
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# General random rewiring algorithm



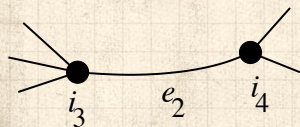
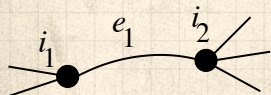
Randomly choose **two edges**.  
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Check to make sure edges are **disjoint**.



# General random rewiring algorithm



Randomly choose **two edges**.  
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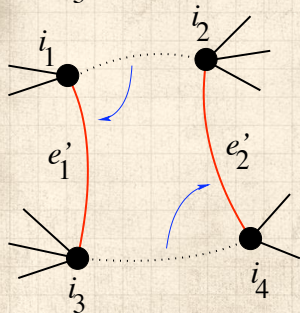
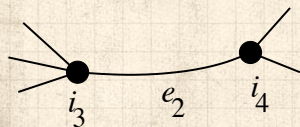
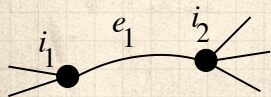
Check to make sure edges are **disjoint**.



Rewire one end of each edge.



# General random rewiring algorithm



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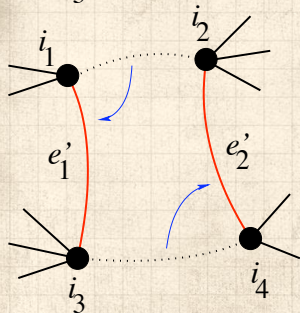
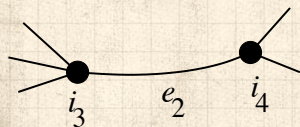
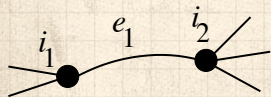
Rewire one end of each edge.



Node degrees **do not change**.



# General random rewiring algorithm



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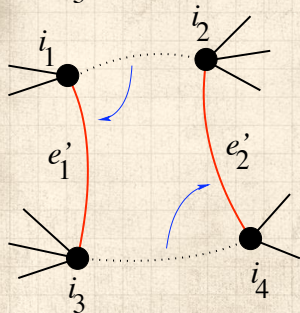
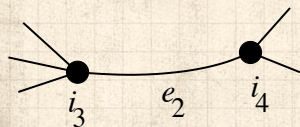
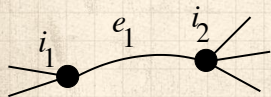
Node degrees **do not change**.



Works if  $e_1$  is a self-loop or repeated  
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# General random rewiring algorithm



Randomly choose **two edges**.  
(Or choose problem edge and a random edge)



Check to make sure edges are **disjoint**.



Rewire one end of each edge.



Node degrees **do not change**.



Works if  $e_1$  is a self-loop or repeated edge.



Same as finding on/off/on/off 4-cycles and rotating them.



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Phase 2:



Use rewiring algorithm to remove all self and repeat loops.



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Phase 2:

 Use rewiring algorithm to remove all self and repeat loops.

Phase 3:

 **Randomize network** wiring by applying rewiring algorithm liberally.





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Phase 2:

 Use rewiring algorithm to remove all self and repeat loops.

Phase 3:

 **Randomize network** wiring by applying rewiring algorithm liberally.

 Rule of thumb: # Rewirings  $\simeq 10 \times$  # edges <sup>[4]</sup>.



# Random sampling



Problem with only joining up stubs is **failure** to randomly sample from all possible networks.

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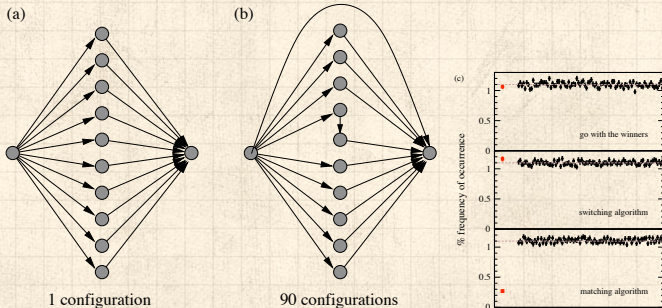
References



# Random sampling

 Problem with only joining up stubs is **failure** to randomly sample from all possible networks.

 Example from Milo et al. (2003) <sup>[4]</sup>:



# Sampling random networks



What if we have  $P_k$  instead of  $N_k$ ?

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What if we have  $P_k$  instead of  $N_k$ ?



Must now create nodes before start of the construction algorithm.



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What if we have  $P_k$  instead of  $N_k$ ?



Must now create nodes before start of the construction algorithm.



Generate  $N$  nodes by sampling from degree distribution  $P_k$ .



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# Sampling random networks



What if we have  $P_k$  instead of  $N_k$ ?



Must now create nodes before start of the construction algorithm.



Generate  $N$  nodes by sampling from degree distribution  $P_k$ .



Easy to do exactly numerically since  $k$  is discrete.



**Note:** not all  $P_k$  will always give nodes that can be wired together.





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 Idea of **motifs**<sup>[7]</sup> introduced by Shen-Orr, Alon et al. in 2002.



# Network motifs

 Idea of **motifs**<sup>[7]</sup> introduced by Shen-Orr, Alon et al. in 2002.

 Looked at gene expression within full context of transcriptional regulation networks.

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# Network motifs

- ❏ Idea of **motifs**<sup>[7]</sup> introduced by Shen-Orr, Alon et al. in 2002.
- ❏ Looked at gene expression within full context of transcriptional regulation networks.
- ❏ Specific example of Escherichia coli.

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# Network motifs

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-  Specific example of Escherichia coli.
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# Network motifs

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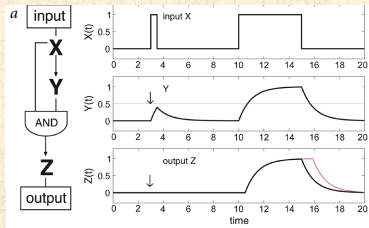
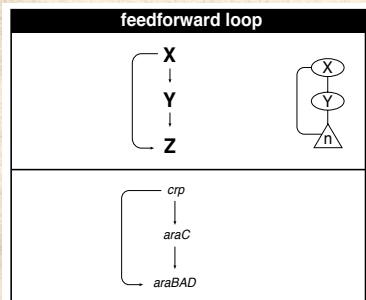



# Network motifs

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- 🧱 Looked for **certain subnetworks (motifs)** that appeared more or less often than expected



# Network motifs



  $Z$  only turns on in response to sustained activity in  $X$ .





# Network motifs

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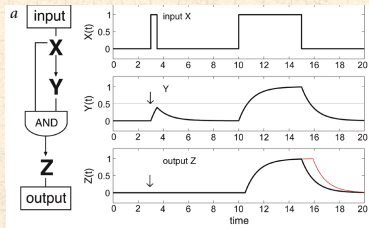
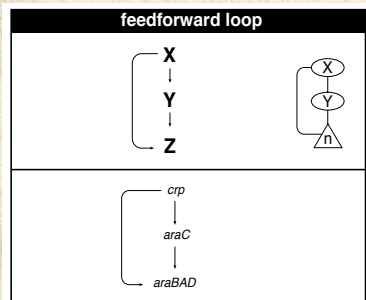
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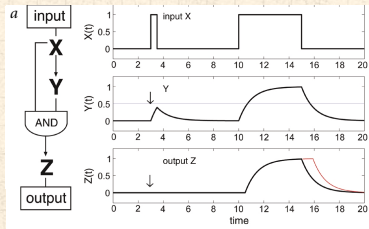
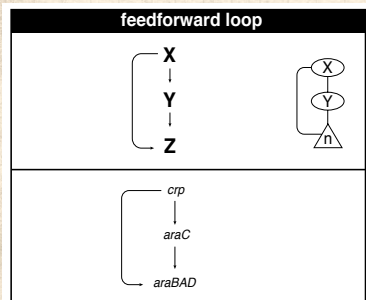



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 Turning off  $X$  rapidly turns off  $Z$ .




# Network motifs



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 Turning off  $X$  rapidly turns off  $Z$ .

 Analogy to elevator doors.



# Network motifs

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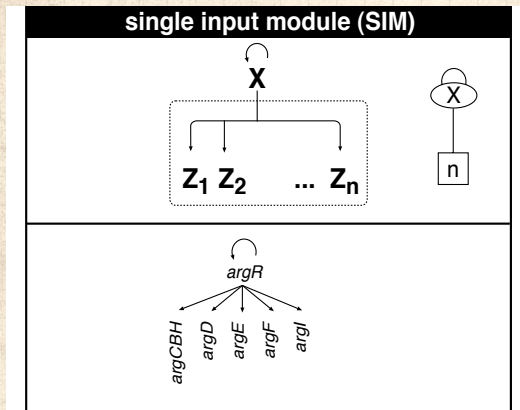
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Master switch.



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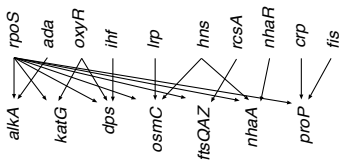
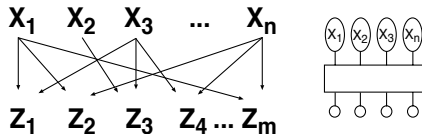
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## dense overlapping regulons (DOR)



# Network motifs

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 Note: selection of motifs to test is reasonable but nevertheless ad-hoc.



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 Note: selection of motifs to test is reasonable but nevertheless ad-hoc.

 For more, see work carried out by Wiggins *et al.* at Columbia.



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# The edge-degree distribution:



The degree distribution  $P_k$  is fundamental for our description of many complex networks

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 Again:  $P_k$  is the degree of **randomly chosen node**.

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-  The degree distribution  $P_k$  is fundamental for our description of many complex networks
-  Again:  $P_k$  is the degree of **randomly chosen node**.
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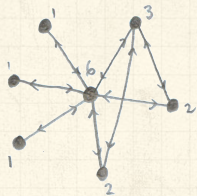
 **Big deal:** Rich-get-richer mechanism is built into this selection process.



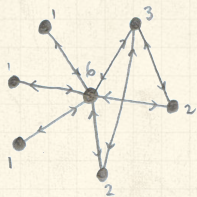


Probability of randomly selecting a node of degree  $k$  by choosing from nodes:

$$P_1 = 3/7, P_2 = 2/7, P_3 = 1/7, \\ P_6 = 1/7.$$







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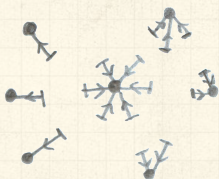
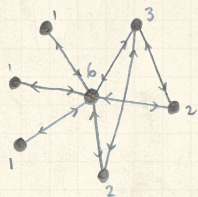
$$P_1 = 3/7, P_2 = 2/7, P_3 = 1/7, \\ P_6 = 1/7.$$



Probability of landing on a node of degree  $k$  after randomly selecting an edge and then randomly choosing one direction to travel:

$$Q_1 = 3/16, Q_2 = 4/16, \\ Q_3 = 3/16, Q_6 = 6/16.$$





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Probability of finding # outgoing edges =  $k$  after randomly selecting an edge and then randomly choosing one direction to travel:

$$R_0 = 3/16, R_1 = 4/16, \\ R_2 = 3/16, R_5 = 6/16.$$



# The edge-degree distribution:

 For random networks,  $Q_k$  is also the probability that a friend (neighbor) of a random node has  $k$  friends.

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 Useful variant on  $Q_k$ :

$R_k$  = probability that a friend of a random node has  $k$  other friends.



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 Equivalent to friend having degree  $k+1$ .



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 Equivalent to friend having degree  $k+1$ .

 **Natural question:** what's the expected number of other friends that one friend has?





# The edge-degree distribution:

 Given  $R_k$  is the probability that a friend has  $k$  other friends, then the average number of **friends' other friends** is

$$\langle k \rangle_R = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k R_k$$

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(where we have sneakily matched up indices)



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# The edge-degree distribution:




Note: our result,  $\langle k \rangle_R = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} (\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle)$ , is true for **all** random networks, **independent of degree distribution**.



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 For standard random networks, recall


$$\langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle.$$






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 Again, neatness of results is a special property of the Poisson distribution.

 So friends on average have  $\langle k \rangle$  other friends, and  $\langle k \rangle + 1$  total friends...



# The edge-degree distribution:



In fact,  $R_k$  is rather special for pure random networks ...

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Substituting

$$P_k = \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

into

$$R_k = \frac{(k+1)P_{k+1}}{\langle k \rangle}$$

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$$= \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} \equiv P_k.$$



# The edge-degree distribution:

 In fact,  $R_k$  is rather special for pure random networks ...

 Substituting

$$P_k = \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

into

$$R_k = \frac{(k+1)P_{k+1}}{\langle k \rangle}$$

we have

$$R_k = \frac{(k+1)}{\langle k \rangle} \frac{\langle k \rangle^{(k+1)}}{(k+1)!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} = \frac{\cancel{(k+1)}}{\langle k \rangle} \frac{\langle k \rangle^{(k+1)}}{\cancel{(k+1)}k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

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# Two reasons why this matters

Reason #1:

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4. See also: class size paradoxes (nod to: Gelman)



# Two reasons why this matters

More on peculiarity #3:

 A node's average # of friends:  $\langle k \rangle$

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 So only if everyone has the same degree (variance=  $\sigma^2 = 0$ )  
can a node be the same as its friends.




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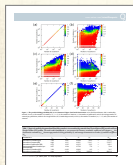
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 So only if everyone has the same degree (variance =  $\sigma^2 = 0$ ) can a node be the same as its friends.

 Intuition: for random networks, the more connected a node, the more likely it is to be chosen as a friend.






“Generalized friendship paradox in complex networks: The case of scientific collaboration” 

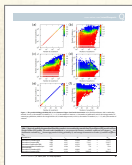
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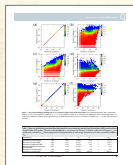
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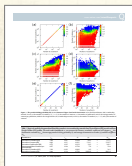
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 **The hope:** Maybe they have more enemies and diseases too.



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# Two reasons why this matters

(Big) Reason #2:

  $\langle k \rangle_R$  is key to understanding how well random networks are connected together.

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 Note: Component = Cluster



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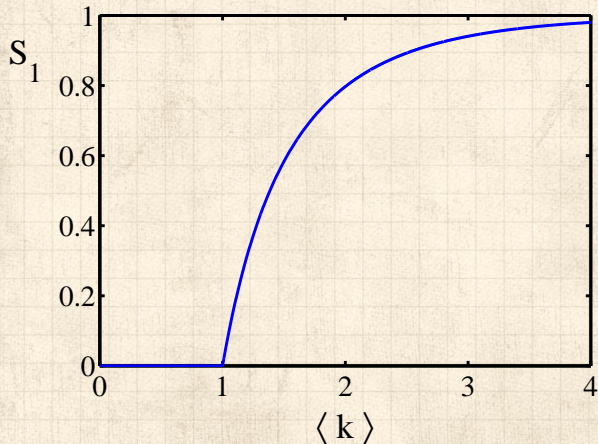
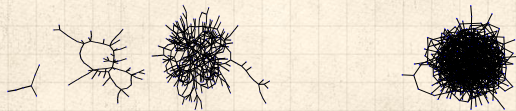
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# Giant component



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# Structure of random networks

## Giant component:

 A giant component exists if when we follow a random edge, we are likely to hit a node with **at least 1** other outgoing edge.

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$$\langle k \rangle_R = \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} > 1$$

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 Equivalent statement:  $\langle k^2 \rangle > 2\langle k \rangle$

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# Spreading on Random Networks



For random networks, we know local structure is pure branching.

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- For random networks, we know local structure is pure branching.
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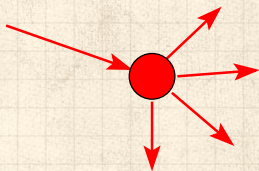
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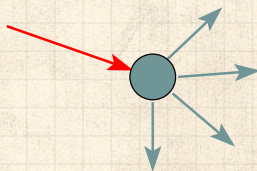
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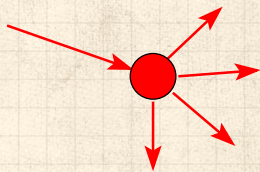
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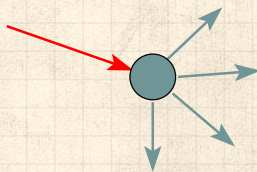
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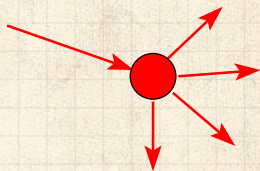
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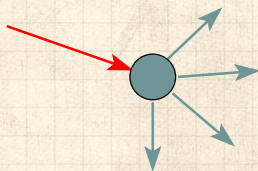
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 **First big question:** for a given network and contagion process, can global spreading from a single seed occur?

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# Global spreading condition



We need to find: <sup>[1]</sup>

**R** = the average # of infected edges that one random infected edge brings about.



Call **R** the gain ratio.

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Call **R** the gain ratio.



Define  $B_{k1}$  as the probability that a node of degree  $k$  is infected by a single infected edge.



$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \underbrace{\frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle}}_{\text{prob. of connecting to a degree } k \text{ node}} \cdot \underbrace{(k-1)}_{\text{\# outgoing infected edges}} \cdot \underbrace{B_{k1}}_{\text{Prob. of infection}}$$
  
$$+ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \underbrace{\frac{\widehat{kP_k}}{\langle k \rangle}}_{\text{\# outgoing infected edges}} \cdot \underbrace{0}_{\text{\# outgoing infected edges}}$$



# Global spreading condition



We need to find: <sup>[1]</sup>

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$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \cdot \underbrace{(k-1)}_{\substack{\# \text{ outgoing} \\ \text{infected} \\ \text{edges}}} \cdot \underbrace{B_{k1}}_{\substack{\text{Prob. of} \\ \text{infection}}} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\widehat{k P_k}}{\langle k \rangle} \cdot \underbrace{0}_{\substack{\# \text{ outgoing} \\ \text{infected} \\ \text{edges}}} \cdot \underbrace{(1 - B_{k1})}_{\substack{\text{Prob. of} \\ \text{no infection}}}$$



# Global spreading condition

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 Our global spreading condition is then:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle} \cdot (k - 1) \cdot B_{k1} > 1.$$



# Global spreading condition

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Case 1—Rampant spreading:



# Global spreading condition


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 **Case 1—Rampant spreading:** If  $B_{k1} = 1$



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 **Case 1–Rampant spreading:** If  $B_{k1} = 1$  then

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) = \frac{\langle k(k-1) \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} > 1.$$






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 **Good:** This is just our giant component condition again.



# Global spreading condition



## Case 2—Simple disease-like:

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# Global spreading condition

 **Case 2—Simple disease-like:** If  $B_{k1} = \beta < 1$

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# Global spreading condition



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**Case 2—Simple disease-like:** If  $B_{k1} = \beta < 1$  then


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A fraction  $(1-\beta)$  of edges do not transmit infection.




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 Analogous phase transition to giant component case but critical value of  $\langle k \rangle$  is increased.



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-  A fraction  $(1-\beta)$  of edges do not transmit infection.
-  Analogous phase transition to giant component case but critical value of  $\langle k \rangle$  is increased.
-  Aka bond percolation .






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 **Case 2—Simple disease-like:** If  $B_{k1} = \beta < 1$  then

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 A fraction  $(1-\beta)$  of edges do not transmit infection.

 Analogous phase transition to giant component case but **critical value** of  $\langle k \rangle$  is **increased**.

 Aka bond percolation .


 Resulting degree distribution  $\tilde{P}_k$ :

$$\tilde{P}_k = \beta^k \sum_{i=k}^{\infty} \binom{i}{k} (1-\beta)^{i-k} P_i.$$





## Giant component for standard random networks:

 Recall  $\langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle$ .

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 Fine example of a continuous phase transition 



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Therefore when  $\langle k \rangle > 1$ , standard random networks have a giant component.

When  $\langle k \rangle < 1$ , all components are finite.


Fine example of a continuous phase transition .

We say  $\langle k \rangle = 1$  marks the critical point of the system.





## Random networks with skewed $P_k$ :

 e.g, if  $P_k = ck^{-\gamma}$  with  $2 < \gamma < 3$ ,  $k \geq 1$ , then

$$\langle k^2 \rangle = c \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 k^{-\gamma}$$

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 So giant component **always exists** for these kinds of networks.

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 How about  $P_k = \delta_{kk_0}$ ?

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# Giant component

And how big is the largest component?

 Define  $S_1$  as the **size of the largest component**.

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# Giant component

And how big is the largest component?

 Define  $S_1$  as the **size of the largest component**.

 Consider an infinite ER random network with average degree  $\langle k \rangle$ .

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# Giant component

And how big is the largest component?

- Define  $S_1$  as the **size of the largest component**.
- Consider an infinite ER random network with average degree  $\langle k \rangle$ .
- Let's find  $S_1$  with a back-of-the-envelope argument.

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- Simple connection:  $\delta = 1 - S_1$ .



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- So

$$\delta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k$$

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- Substitute in Poisson distribution...

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# Giant component



Carrying on:

$$\delta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k$$

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# Giant component

 Carrying on:

$$\delta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} \delta^k$$

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# Giant component



Carrying on:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} \delta^k \\ &= e^{-\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\langle k \rangle \delta)^k}{k!}\end{aligned}$$

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# Giant component



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Now substitute in  $\delta = 1 - S_1$  and rearrange to obtain:

$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}.$$



# Giant component



We can figure out some limits and details for

$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}.$$

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# Giant component



We can figure out some limits and details for

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First, we can write  $\langle k \rangle$  in terms of  $S_1$ :

$$\langle k \rangle = \frac{1}{S_1} \ln \frac{1}{1 - S_1}.$$





# Giant component



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As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 0$ .



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As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 1$ .



Notice that at  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ , the critical point,  $S_1 = 0$ .



# Giant component



We can figure out some limits and details for

$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}.$$



First, we can write  $\langle k \rangle$  in terms of  $S_1$ :

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As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 1$ .



Notice that at  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ , the critical point,  $S_1 = 0$ .



Only solvable for  $S_1 > 0$  when  $\langle k \rangle > 1$ .



# Giant component



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$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}.$$



First, we can write  $\langle k \rangle$  in terms of  $S_1$ :

$$\langle k \rangle = \frac{1}{S_1} \ln \frac{1}{1 - S_1}.$$



As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 0$ .



As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 1$ .



Notice that at  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ , the critical point,  $S_1 = 0$ .



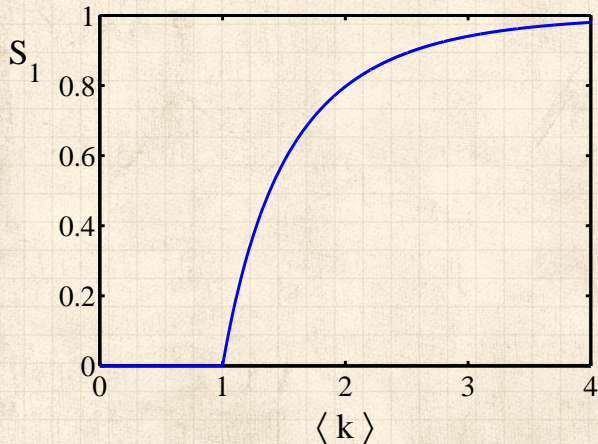
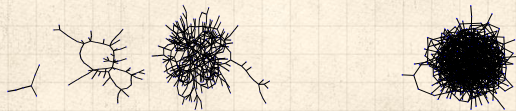
Only solvable for  $S_1 > 0$  when  $\langle k \rangle > 1$ .



Really a transcritical bifurcation. [8]



# Giant component



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# Giant component

Turns out we were lucky...

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-  Works for ER random networks because  $\langle k \rangle = \langle k \rangle_R$ .
-  We need a separate probability  $\delta'$  for the chance that an edge **leads to** the giant (infinite) component.





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- Works for ER random networks because  $\langle k \rangle = \langle k \rangle_R$ .
- We need a separate probability  $\delta'$  for the chance that an edge **leads to** the giant (infinite) component.
- We can sort many things out with **sensible probabilistic arguments...**
- More detailed investigations will profit from a spot of **Generatingfunctionology**.<sup>[9]</sup>







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